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UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT
EASTERN DISTRICT OF CALIFORNIA

CALIFORNIA PROLIFE COUNCIL
POLITICAL ACTION COMMITTEE,

Plaintiff,

v.

JAN SCULLY, et al.,

Defendants and
Defendants in
Intervention.

NO. CIV. S-96-1965 LKK/DAD

OPINION¹

TO BE PUBLISHED

AND CONSOLIDATED ACTIONS.

A healthy scepticism on the part of the governed concerning
those who govern is as much a mark of a vibrant democracy as a

¹ The court has made Findings of Fact concerning any factual
issue that any party thought potentially relevant to disposition
of the case. Because they consist of some 456 findings, they have
been set out in a separate document issued concurrently with this
opinion. They may also be found at the court's website which is
located at www.caed.uscourts.gov. Particular findings will be
referred to as appropriate during the course of this opinion.

1 paranoid suspicion is a symptom of its decline. Whether
2 California's voters entertain the former or suffer the latter is
3 of some moment in the matter at bar. After a two-week trial the
4 issue remains one upon which reasonable minds might disagree.²
5 That some elected officials have subordinated the duties of their
6 office to their personal greed and ambition is hardly news or new.
7 It is also true, however, that many seek office to advance their
8 political convictions, and if elected, discharge the duties of
9 their office pursuant to their view of the public good, as that
10 view is informed by their ideology.³ This case tests whether the
11 evident disaffection from the prior political regimen of campaign
12 financing exhibited by California's voters in adopting Proposition
13 208 is premised upon a proper concern or rests upon an exaggerated
14 view, and whether in either event, the various provisions of the
15

16 ² As to the issue of a legitimate government interest, the
17 court made eighteen specific findings. Perhaps the most crucial
18 is Finding No. 61 which reads: "Between 1990 and 1994, five
19 members of the State legislature were convicted and sentenced to
20 prison in this court on felony racketeering, extortion, bribery and
21 money laundering charges. These convictions involved the corrupt
exchange of money. As to certain defendants, the money was
delivered in the form of campaign contributions. As to others,
they were or were proposed to be delivered for the recipient's
personal use."

22 ³ As noted, after an intensive investigation extending over
23 four years, the federal government successfully prosecuted some
24 five elected members of the California legislature which consists
25 of eighty Assembly members elected every two years and forty Senate
26 members elected every four years. Whether the conviction of these
five is viewed as a cause for despair as to the moral character of
those we elect, or an occasion to celebrate the apparent rectitude
of the vast majority, may turn more on the temperament of those
that consider the question than on some objective standard.

1 initiative abridge those constitutional rights which are central
2 to preservation of the democratic process.⁴

3 Proposition 208 is an initiative adopted by California's
4 voters. Its some fifty sections adding to and amending the
5 California Government Code⁵ seek to regulate, inter alia, who may
6 contribute to political campaigns, how much may be contributed,
7 when contributions can be made, what purposes the contributions may
8 be put to, the contents of various political advertisements and,
9 indirectly, the extent of expenditures. Essentially the instant
10 suit challenges each substantive provision asserting that it
11 violates the strictures of the First Amendment to the United States
12 Constitution.⁶ It is brought by a political action committee

13
14 ⁴ This court has previously explored the relationship between
15 the right of the States to regulate their internal affairs,
16 including elections, and the mandates of the First Amendment. See
17 Service Employees International Union v. Fair Political Practices
18 Comm'n, 747 F. Supp. 580, 583 (E.D. Cal. 1990) ("SEIU II").
19 Reiteration here would serve no useful purpose. Suffice it to say
20 that the Bill of Rights confines the power of the States to
21 regulate matters within the purview of the First Amendment. Id.
22 This is so whether the regulation derives from the legislature,
23 Tashjian v. Republican Party of Connecticut, 479 U.S. 208, 217
24 (1986), or the initiative process. Citizens Against Rent Control
25 v. City of Berkeley, 454 U.S. 290, 295 (1981).

20 ⁵ Unless otherwise indicated, all statutory references are
21 to the California Government Code.

22 ⁶ The First Amendment by its literal terms protects both
23 speech and political association. Because the actual provisions
24 of the First Amendment are almost never alluded to in the
25 jurisprudence addressing limits on campaign financing, it may be
26 worthwhile to recall that its provisions forbid any limitation on
speech or political association. "Congress shall make no law
. . . abridging the freedom of speech . . . or the right of the
people to peaceably assemble, and to petition the Government for
a redress of grievances." U.S. Const., Amend. I. It was made
applicable to the States by virtue of the Fourteenth Amendment.

1 ("PAC") representing those who seek to limit abortions,
2 various labor unions and their PACs, individual contributors to
3 political campaigns, candidates and prospective candidates,
4 officeholders, the Republican and Democratic parties, and two
5 professional slate mailers. The initiative is defended by
6 California's Fair Political Practices Commission ("FPPC"), the
7 state agency responsible for its administration, and its official
8 proponents, who were permitted to intervene.⁷

9 Before addressing the substantive provisions of Proposition
10 208, the court must first consider whether it should resolve this
11 facial challenge to a state statute which has not been
12 authoritatively construed by the state courts.

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16 Stromberg v. People of State of California, 283 U.S. 359, 368
17 (1931). From the uncompromising terms of the Amendment it would
18 seem that devising any test upholding limits on political speech
19 or association would be a difficult task indeed, requiring, if
20 permitted at all, the most delicate of judgments, predicated on the
21 most persuasive evidence of the need to serve not only legitimate
22 but urgent governmental interests. This opinion explores, among
23 other issues, what standard the Supreme Court has made applicable
24 to restrictions on speech and political association despite the
25 language of the First Amendment, and whether the requisite showing
26 has been made in the case of Proposition 208.

⁷ The initial parties to the suit stipulated to permit the
official proponents of the initiative, Ruth Holton and Tony Miller,
to intervene on behalf of the defendant. Thereafter, the
plaintiffs, believing that an intervening decision justified the
motion, see Arizonans for Official English v. Arizona, __ U.S. __,
117 S. Ct. 1055 (1997), moved for reconsideration of the order
granting intervention. The court declined to do so. See Order
filed July 9, 1997.

1 I.

2 FEDERAL COURTS AND STATE STATUTES

3 Plaintiffs' decision to challenge in a federal forum a
4 California statute that has not yet been authoritatively construed
5 by the California Supreme Court raises questions about a federal
6 court's role in such circumstances. Below I first examine whether
7 this court should reach the merits of the litigation.

8 A. Abstention, Certification or Resolution on the Merits

9 The Constitution of the United States provides for a federal
10 judiciary. Its jurisdiction extends to "all cases, in law and
11 equity, arising under this constitution and the laws of the United
12 States." U.S. Const., Art. III.

13 Given the constitutional source of the federal courts'
14 jurisdiction over cases arising under the fundamental document, it
15 is hardly surprising that in federal question cases "federal courts
16 have a 'virtually unflagging obligation . . . to exercise the
17 jurisdiction given them.'" England v. Louisiana Bd. of Medical
18 Examiners, 375 U.S. 411, 415 (1964). Nevertheless, where the
19 resolution of a federal question case turns on the meaning of a
20 state's statute, the Supreme Court has suggested a more cautious
21 approach. It has been said that federal courts "normally . . .
22 ought not to consider the constitutionality of a state statute in
23 the absence of a controlling interpretation of its meaning and

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1 effect by the state court." Arizonans for Official English v.
2 Arizona, __ U.S. __, 117 S. Ct. 1055, 1074 (1997).⁸

3 Arizonans' counsel of restraint appears premised, at least in
4 part, upon the fact that a federal court, while it may speak
5 decisively about federal law, lacks authority to definitively
6 interpret a state statute. Id. at 1073-74 (holding that federal
7 courts lack competence to rule definitively on the meaning of state
8 legislation); Moore v. Sims, 442 U.S. 415, 429 (1979) (state courts
9 "are the principal expositors of state law"). The High Court has
10 also opined that resort to the state courts serves to avoid
11 "friction generating error" which a federal court risks when it
12 "endeavors to construe a novel state act not yet reviewed by the
13 State's highest court." Arizonans, 117 S. Ct. at 1074.⁹ As I now

14
15 ⁸ The source for the authority to exercise the restraint
16 alluded to in Arizonans is less than pellucid. Because there is
17 no provision in the Constitution nor in any statute which
18 authorizes abstention, it is clearly a doctrine of federal common
19 law. Congress, however, in 28 U.S.C. § 1331 provided the district
20 courts with federal question jurisdiction, and it is a commonplace
21 of federal practice that federal common law doctrines must give way
22 to statutory commands. See, e.g., Middlesex County Sewerage
23 Authority v. Nat'l Sea Clammers Assn., 453 U.S. 1 (1981). Nor is
24 it any answer that abstention is not a surrender of federal
25 jurisdiction but simply a postponement. Given the cost of
26 litigation in multiple fora, doctrines of collateral estoppel and
the like, abstention frequently, if not inevitably, is the
equivalent of a refusal to adjudicate.

22 ⁹ At least one commentator has queried whether a federal
23 court's decision invalidating a state statute on constitutional
24 grounds causes any more friction than an identical state court
25 decision. James C. Rhenquist, Taking Comity Seriously, 46 Stan. L.
26 Rev. 1049, 1072 (1994). He suggests that "the game is worth the
candle only if the state court can invalidate the state policy on
state law grounds." Id. at 1073. Put directly, if the source of
invalidation is the federal Constitution, it is that fact which is
friction generating rather than whether the determination is made

1 explain, however, it is not always desirable or even feasible to
2 decline resolution of a claim under the federal constitution
3 because it implicates construction of a state statute which has not
4 been reviewed by the state's highest court.

5 A federal court asked to determine the constitutionality of
6 a state statute not yet considered by the state court has at least
7 three options. First, the court may abstain under the principles
8 first enunciated in Railroad Commission of Tex. v. Pullman Co., 312
9 U.S. 496 (1941). Second, in many states a federal court has the
10 option of certification directly to the highest court of the state.
11 Finally, the court may proceed to the merits of the constitutional
12 question notwithstanding the absence of an authoritative state
13 court construction. Below I consider each option in the matter
14 at bar.

15 Pullman abstention derives from the general rule that
16 constitutional issues should be avoided where a case can be
17 disposed of on non-constitutional grounds.¹² The Court observed
18 that a federal court's resolution of a state law issue could not
19 "escape being a forecast rather than a determination" because the
20 _____
21 by a state or federal court.

22 ¹² Pullman abstention may be raised by the parties or the
23 court sua sponte at any time. See Belloti, 428 U.S. 132, 144 n.10
24 (1976)("it would appear that abstention may be raised by the court
25 sua sponte"). Here, the court raised the issue of abstention sua
26 sponte after trial had begun and all the parties were united in
their opposition to abstention. Given the fact that the FPPC is
a party in this action and is the authoritative voice of the State
of California concerning questions relating to Proposition 208, it
may be said that the State has opposed abstention in this case.

1 "last word" on the construction of the state statute belonged to
2 the state's highest court. Pullman, 312 U.S. at 499-500. Thus,
3 where state court construction may avoid resolution on
4 constitutional grounds, Pullman suggests that a federal court may
5 direct the plaintiff to bring a state court action on the state law
6 question.¹³ But see Lehman Brothers v. Schein, 416 U.S. 386, 390
7 (1974)("mere difficulty in ascertaining local law is no excuse for
8 remitting the parties to a state tribunal for the start of another
9 lawsuit").

10 The High Court has made clear, however, that abstention is not
11 warranted in every instance in which the state court has not passed
12 on a particular state law question. See Wisconsin v. Constantineau,
13 400 U.S. 433, 439 (1971)("where there is no ambiguity in the state
14 statute, the federal court should not abstain but should proceed
15 to decide the federal constitutional claim"); Hawaii Housing
16 Authority v. Midkiff, 467 U.S. 229 (1984)("federal courts need not
17 abstain . . . when a state statute is not 'fairly subject to an
18 interpretation which will render unnecessary adjudication of the
19 federal constitutional question'"). Especially, where, as here,
20 a statute is alleged to abridge free expression, federal courts
21 have been reluctant to accept the delay attendant upon initiation
22 and resolution of state court proceedings. See Houston v. Hill, 482

23
24 ¹³ After filing suit in the state court, the parties can
25 thereafter elect to pursue both the state law claims and the
26 federal constitutional challenge in state court, or, may litigate
only the state issue in state court reserving the right to return
to federal court on the constitutional issue. See England v.
Louisiana Medical Examiners, 375 U.S. 411, 417-18 (1964).

1 U.S. 451, 467 (1987)(observing that "we have been particularly
2 reluctant to abstain in cases involving facial challenges based on
3 the First Amendment"); see also Dombrowski v. Pfister, 380 U.S.
4 479, 489-92 (1965)(abstention not appropriate where statute was
5 challenged as abridging First Amendment activities).¹⁴

6 The problem tendered here is similar to that considered in
7 Bates v. Jones, 904 F. Supp. 1080, 1087 (N.D. Cal. 1995). There,
8 the intervenors moved for abstention, noting the existence of a
9 pending state court case. The district court denied the motion.
10 It first concluded that there was no reasonable chance that a
11 California court would invalidate the enactment on state
12 constitutional grounds. Moreover, given that the state opposed
13 abstention, the court concluded that the interest in avoiding
14 friction with state policies was not implicated. Finally, it
15 concluded that proceeding to the merits was consistent with the
16 state's interest because the delay resulting from abstention would
17 impair state functions by causing chaos in the upcoming election.
18 Many of the same considerations exist in the case at bar.

19 As noted above, the State through the FPFC, opposed
20 abstention, and thus the interest in avoiding friction is not
21 implicated here. Accordingly, "[t]he pivotal question . . .
22 is whether the statute is 'fairly subject to an interpretation

23
24 ¹⁴ The doctrine of special urgency for First Amendment
25 questions has never been directly questioned by the present Supreme
26 Court. Although some may think that Arizonans is an opening to
reconsideration, such speculation is for the authors of law review
articles and not district judges bound by the expressed holdings
of the High Court.

1 which will render unnecessary or substantially modify the federal
2 constitutional question.'" Houston, 482 U.S. at 468. Here, as in
3 any case, there is always some possibility that the state's
4 highest court might impose a limiting construction on one or more
5 of the challenged provisions. Nonetheless, as I explain *infra*,
6 the success of plaintiffs' multi-faceted attack on Proposition 208
7 turns in large measure on the validity of the contributions
8 limitations scheme, since most other provisions are justified by
9 reference to those limitations. No party has proposed a limiting
10 construction on these key provisions that would substantially
11 alter or avoid the constitutional question.¹⁵ Accordingly, it
12 appears to this court that the hope of avoiding constitutional
13 adjudication by virtue of state construction must give way to the
14 reluctance to delay resolution of First Amendment questions,
15 particularly in light of the self-censorship Proposition 208 has
16 already generated.¹⁶ Moreover, at this stage in the proceedings,

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18 ¹⁵ As I describe *infra*, the broad powers of the California
19 Supreme Court to rewrite statutes suggests that the possibility of
20 a saving revision may be less remote than the text of the
21 proposition suggests. That fact does not support abstention,
22 however, since any such reformation is itself dependant upon a
23 finding concerning the constitutionality of the provisions of the
24 initiative.

25 ¹⁶ The court has made dozens of specific findings concerning
26 how plaintiffs have altered their contribution patterns and
election strategy in response to Proposition 208. In addition, the
court concluded: "Proposition 208 has created an atmosphere of
uncertainty in which some plaintiffs have limited and censored
their speech and associational activity out of fear of prosecution
and a desire to conform to the law, and are likely to do so in the
future. Although the uncertainty will diminish over time, there
will always be some uncertainty and confusion. In any event, some
plaintiffs will be adversely effected by self-censorship generated

1 after extensive and detailed briefing, a long and arduous trial,
2 and two days of argument, the duplication of effort and expense,
3 and the delay attendant on resorting to the state court weighs
4 heavily against abstention. Given all the above, the court
5 believes that Pullman abstention is inappropriate.¹⁷

6 Arizonans for Official English involved construction of a
7 statute of a state where certification to its highest court was
8 available. Despite the request of the state, both the trial court
9 and the Ninth Circuit declined to certify questions to the state
10 court. The Supreme Court explained that certification procedures
11 "do not entail the delays, expense and procedural complexity that
12 generally attend abstention decisions." Arizonans, 117 S. Ct. at
13 1075. The critical factor in determining whether certification is
14 appropriate is the existence of "novel, unsettled questions of
15 state law." Id. at 1074. Unfortunately, however, certification is
16 not available to this court.

17 Until November of this year, California had no procedure
18 permitting certification to its Supreme Court. On November 15,
19 1997, that court adopted California Supreme Court Rule 29.5 which
20 permits the U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals to certify questions of
21

22 by Proposition 208 for a number of elections." See Finding No. 69.

23 ¹⁷ Although the court will not delay resolution of the central
24 federal question tendered by this litigation, as it explains *infra*,
25 the fact that plaintiffs here seek injunctive relief provides
26 a means of addressing both this court's responsibility relative to
questions of the applicability of the federal Constitution to state
statutes, and the state court's final authority as to the meaning
of state statutes.

1 California law to the state Supreme Court. Unfortunately, that
2 opportunity has not been extended to the district court.

3 Because abstention is inappropriate and certification is
4 unavailable, this court has no other choice but to address the
5 merits of the constitutional challenge.

6 **B. Statutory Construction**

7 Having determined that the court should address the merits of
8 plaintiffs' claim, the court must next consider how to determine
9 what the Proposition means. The first step in that process is to
10 determine whether a federal court applies state or federal rules
11 of statutory construction in making an initial determination about
12 what each provision of the statute means.¹⁸

13 When a federal court resolves state law issues pursuant to the
14 exercise of its diversity jurisdiction, it is said that the
15 federal court applies state law, and is "in effect, sitting as a
16 state court." Commissioner of Internal Revenue v. Estate of Bosch,
17 387 U.S. 456, 465 (1967). The instant case tenders questions
18 about the appropriate function of a federal district court in
19 construing a state statute while exercising its federal question
20 jurisdiction. Happily, resolution of this question is unnecessary
21 in the instant matter. The general rules of statutory

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23 ¹⁸ The question of whether a federal court applies state rules
24 of statutory construction is, of course, distinct from the question
25 of whether a federal court applies state law rules to determine
26 whether an unconstitutional provision can be severed from the
remainder of the Act, or from the question of whether the federal
court applies state law in determining if an otherwise
unconstitutional provision is susceptible of a limiting
construction.

1 construction are apparently identical under federal and California
2 law. See, e.g., Lillebo v. Davis, 222 Cal.App.3d 1421, 1440
3 (1990). Because the question is, at best, simply of academic
4 interest, it need not be resolved.¹⁹

5 II.

6 ASSERTED DISCRIMINATION AGAINST CHALLENGERS

7 The court has determined on the basis of the evidence before
8 it that, as a fact of life, ordinarily incumbents have a
9 significant advantage over their challengers.²⁰ Nonetheless,
10 plaintiffs contend that the interplay among various provisions of
11 Proposition 208 discriminate against candidates who are not
12 famous, wealthy, incumbents or otherwise advantaged.

13 Proposition 208 applies the same limitations to all
14 candidates. The Supreme Court has said in the context of campaign
15 reform legislation that "[a]bsent record evidence of invidious
16 discrimination against challengers as a class, a court should
17 generally be hesitant to invalidate legislation which on its face
18 imposes evenhanded restrictions." Buckley v. Valeo, 424 U.S.

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20 ¹⁹ See Goldman v. Goldman, 70 F.3d 1028, 1029 (9th Cir. 1995)
21 (federal courts interpreting state statutes are "bound by
22 California rules of construction"); see also Municipal Utilities
23 Bd. of Albertville v. Alabama Power Co., 21 F.3d 384, 387 (11th
24 Cir. 1994)("[w]hen construing a state statute, we look to state
rules of statutory construction, because the same rules of
construction apply in a federal court as would apply in a state
court.")

25 ²⁰ The court has made some 38 findings of fact concerning the
26 asserted discriminatory effect of Proposition 208. See Findings
Nos. 298 through 336. Many of the findings reflect the advantage
that incumbents enjoy over challengers.

1 1, 31 (1976).²¹ The commanded hesitancy, and the absence of
2 evidence of the invidious discrimination that Buckley also
3 demands, defeats plaintiffs' claim of discriminatory impact.

4 As intervenors contend, under Buckley, the discrimination must
5 both be against the class of challengers, and must "invariably and
6 invidiously benefit incumbents as a class." Id. at 33. The
7 evidence does suggest that any contribution limitation coupled
8 with a limitation on the time when contributions may be received
9 will exacerbate the disadvantage of challengers for competitive
10 seats who are not either independently wealthy and willing to
11 expend their own funds on their campaign, or who have not achieved
12 name recognition gained in previous campaigns or in other fields
13 of endeavor. Nonetheless, such challengers are so disadvantaged
14 to begin with that the adverse effects of Proposition 208 may
15 reasonably be viewed as a *de minimus* problem. Moreover, the need
16 to qualify and continually refine the definition of the class
17 adversely effected demonstrates that the statute does not
18 discriminate against all challengers as a class.

19 Plaintiffs' reliance on this court's decision in SEIU II, and
20 the Ninth Circuit's affirmance thereof, SEIU v. FPCC, 955 F.2d
21 1312, 1322 (9th Cir.), cert. denied, 505 U.S. 1230 (1992), to
22 support their contention is misplaced. There, the issue was
23

24 ²¹ While this holding carries more than a whiff of Anatol
25 France's famous dictum that the law in all its majesty forbids both
26 the rich and poor from sleeping under the bridges of Paris, that
observation has apparently not been found persuasive by the High
Court.

1 whether regulating campaign contributions on a fiscal year basis
2 favored incumbents. Because this court found that essentially
3 only incumbents raised money in the off year, measuring
4 contribution limitations on a fiscal year basis invariably and
5 invidiously "discriminate[s] against challengers as a class."
6 SEIU, 955 F.2d at 1318. This class-wide discrimination was
7 sufficient to undermine the challenged provision, particularly
8 given that the defenders of Proposition 73 failed to advance any
9 reason why measuring contribution limits on a fiscal basis
10 advanced the state's interest in preventing corruption or the
11 appearance of corruption. SEIU, 955 F.2d at 1321; SEIU, 747 F.
12 Supp. at 589.

13 Because the court concludes that the evidence is insufficient
14 to find that Proposition 208 inevitably discriminates against
15 challengers as a class, the court determines that the plaintiffs'
16 first basis for attack upon Proposition 208 must fail.

17 **III.**

18 **CONTRIBUTION LIMITS**

19 Both sides agree that the provisions of Proposition 208
20 limiting contributions are the linchpin of the statute and, if
21 these provisions fail to meet constitutional muster, the statute's
22 whole scheme is in doubt. Given the agreed centrality of the
23 provisions limiting contributions, I turn to them first.

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1 **A. The Provisions**

2 The initiative presents a complex, reticulated set of
3 provisions, which curtail the "free market" in political
4 contributions which preceded its adoption.²² It was described at
5 trial by its proponents as a system of "variable contribution
6 limits."

7 The initiative limits what may be contributed to candidates,
8 to parties, and to PACs. The statute prohibits any person,
9 broadly defined to include virtually any entity other than a
10 political party and a small contributor committee (as defined by
11 the statute),²³ from contributing more than \$100 per election in
12 small local districts (less than 100,000 residents), \$250 per
13

14 ²² Professor John Lott of the University of Chicago Law School
15 described the questions tendered to the court in terms of a market
16 analysis. While the court is not satisfied that an analysis
17 premised upon the distinction between a free market and a
18 controlled economy is a perfect fit, it does appear to the court
that it is not inappropriate to recognize that an unregulated
system of political contributions has some of the qualities of a
free market economy.

19 ²³ "Person" is defined in Cal. Gov't Code § 82047 as "an
20 individual, proprietorship, firm, partnership, joint venture,
21 syndicate, business trust, company, corporation, limited liability
company, association, committee, and any other organization or
group of persons acting in concert."

22 The statute defines a small contributor committee as: "[A]ny
committee which meets all of the following criteria:

- 23 (a) It has a membership of at least 100 individuals.
24 (b) All the contributions it receives from any person in a
calendar year total fifty dollars (\$50) or less.
25 (c) It has been in existence at least six months.
26 (d) It is not a candidate-controlled committee."

Cal. Gov't Code § 85203.

1 election for Senate, Assembly, Board of Equalization and large
2 local districts, and \$500 per election for statewide office.
3 Section 85301(a)-(c). These limits are increased to \$250, \$500
4 and \$1,000, respectively, for candidates who agree to specified
5 expenditure limits. Section 85402. The Act also limits
6 contributions to PACs to \$500 per year, section 85301(d), and
7 contributions to political parties to \$5,000 per year. Section
8 85303. The Act further places a \$25,000 aggregate limit on the
9 amount any person (broadly defined) may contribute to all
10 candidates and political parties combined in any two-year period.
11 Section 85310.

12 Proposition 208 also limits the amounts campaigns may receive
13 in the aggregate from PACs, corporations, unions, and other non-
14 individuals, other than small contributor committees and political
15 party committees, to 25% of the so-called voluntary expenditure
16 limit for that office. Section 85309. Candidates are also limited
17 to receiving a cumulative total of 25% of the expenditure limit
18 from all political party committees. Section 85304. Finally, the
19 Act bans transfers between candidates, Section 85306, and bans all
20 contributions from lobbyists. Section 85704.²⁴

21
22 ²⁴ The provisions relating to contributions from lobbyists are
23 actually broader and more onerous. The Act provides "no elected
24 officeholder, candidate or the candidate's controlled committee may
25 solicit or accept a campaign contribution or contribution to an
26 officeholder account from, through, or arranged by a registered
state or local lobbyist if that lobbyist finances, engages, or is
authorized to engage in lobbying the governmental agency for which
the candidate is seeking election or the governmental agency of the
officeholder." Cal. Gov't Code § 85704.

1 **B. Standard of Review Applicable to Contributions**

2 In order to challenge a statute on First Amendment grounds,
3 plaintiffs must first demonstrate that the statute impinges on
4 rights protected by the First Amendment. See SEIU v. FPPC, 721 F.
5 Supp. 1172, 1175 (E.D. Cal. 1989) ("SEIU I"). It is established
6 that "contribution and expenditure limitations operate in an area
7 of the most fundamental First Amendment activities." Buckley, 424
8 U.S. at 14. Independent expenditures are protected by the First
9 Amendment because "spending money on one's own speech must be
10 permitted." Colorado Republican, 518 U.S. ___, 116 S. Ct. at 2321
11 (Kennedy, J., concurring). Under Buckley, limits on independent
12 expenditures cannot be justified by reference to the state's
13 compelling interest in deterring fraud or the appearance of fraud
14 since such expenditures do not "pose dangers of real or apparent
15 corruption comparable to those identified with large campaign
16 contributions." Buckley, 424 U.S. at 46.

17 On the other hand, viewing the question solely from the
18 contributor's point of view, Buckley held that contribution limits
19 "involve little direct restraint" on political communication.
20 Buckley, 424 U.S. at 21.²⁵ The court explained, however, that

21
22 ²⁵ There are at least four separate First Amendment interests
23 which would appear to be cognizable in suits such as this: the
24 interests of contributors in associating with the political views
25 of the candidate; the interest of the candidate in expressing those
26 views; the interest of the members of the public that desire to
hear the candidates views; and the interest of the members of the
public who desire not to hear the candidate's views. Because the
last group has a direct way of protecting itself from meaningful
exposure without adversely affecting the rights of the first three
groups, it would seem that the right of that group to be left alone

1 contribution limits "also impinge on protected associational
2 freedoms." Id. at 22;²⁶ see also Citizens Against Rent Control v.
3 City of Berkeley, 454 U.S. 290, 299 (1981)("[a] limit on
4 contributions . . . need not be analyzed exclusively in terms of
5 the right of association or the right of expression. The two
6 rights overlap and blend; to limit the right of association places
7 an impermissible restraint on the right of expression").
8 Nonetheless, "[e]ven a 'significant interference' with protected
9 rights of political association' may be sustained if the State
10 demonstrates a sufficiently important interest and employs means
11 closely drawn to avoid unnecessary abridgement of associational
12 freedoms." Buckley, 424 U.S. at 25; see also Service Employees
13 Int'l Union v. FPCC, 955 F.2d 1312, 1322 (9th Cir.), cert. denied,
14 505 U.S. 1230 (1992)("contribution limits are subject to a 'less
15 stringent test than strict scrutiny'"); see also Federal Election
16 Comm'n v. Massachusetts Citizens for Life, 479 U.S. 238, 261-62
17 (1986)("the Government enjoys greater latitude in limiting
18 contributions than in regulating independent expenditures").
19 Thus, burdens on contributions "may be sustained if the State
20 demonstrates a sufficiently important interest and employs means
21 closely drawn to avoid unnecessary abridgement of associational
22 _____
23 is not as weighty.

24 ²⁶ After holding that the speech value of contributions was
25 limited to the symbolic expression of support for a candidate, the
26 Buckley court held that "the primary First Amendment problem raised
by the Act's contribution limits is their restriction on one aspect
of the contributor's freedom of political association." Buckley,
424 U.S. at 24.

1 freedoms." Id. at 25.

2 While the statute must be closely drawn "to avoid unnecessary
3 abridgement of associational freedoms," the force of that
4 requirement is muted. Thus, as a general matter, the court will
5 not second guess a legislative determination as to where the line
6 for contribution limits should be drawn. "[I]f it is satisfied
7 that some limit on contributions is necessary, a court has no
8 scalpel to probe, whether, say a \$2,000 ceiling might not serve as
9 well as a \$1,000.' (citation omitted). Such distinctions in
10 degree become significant only when they can be said to amount to
11 differences in kind." Buckley, 424 U.S. at 30.²⁷

12 Plaintiffs attack Proposition 208's contribution limits on
13 three bases. First, they contend that here the record evidence is
14 insufficient to justify a finding of corruption or the appearance
15 of corruption so as to justify the limitations on speech and
16 associational rights imposed by Proposition 208's contribution
17 limits. Second, they contend that the limits on contributions by
18 individuals and PACs are not narrowly drawn to the state's
19 interest in preventing corruption or the appearance of corruption,
20 citing, inter alia, the fact the contribution limits double when
21 a candidate accepts the Act's spending limits. Third, plaintiffs
22 contend that the contribution limits at issue burden not only the
23 First Amendment rights of the contributor but also the First

24
25 ²⁷ The court did not seek to explain how this modest approach
26 conformed to its oft expressed view that "[p]recision of regulation
must be the touchstone" of legislation trenching upon First
Amendment concerns. NAACP v. Button, 371 U.S. 415, 438 (1963).

1 Amendment rights of the candidates, since the limits are so low
2 that they prevent the candidate from amassing the resources
3 necessary for effective advocacy. I turn first to the question of
4 legitimate governmental interest.

5 **C. Legitimate Governmental Interests**

6 It is uncontested that the interest in preventing corruption
7 and the appearance of corruption is a legitimate state interest.
8 See Federal Election Comm'n v. Nat'l Conservative Political Action
9 Committee, 470 U.S. 480, 496-97 (1985)("NCPAC"). In 1972, when
10 considering California's initial attempt to limit political
11 contributions, this court noted that the "anti-corruption in fact
12 and appearance rationale [was] the only [legitimate governmental
13 interest] sanctioned by the Supreme Court in defense of political
14 contributions and expenditure limitations." SEIU I, 721 F. Supp.
15 at 1175 (E.D. Cal. 1989). I noted the following year, however,
16 that the court had identified an additional interest, namely,
17 "limiting 'the corrosive and distorting effects of immense
18 aggregations of wealth that are accumulated with the help of the
19 corporate form and that have little or no correlation to the
20 public's support for the corporation's political ideas.'" SEIU II,
21 747 F. Supp. at 584 (quoting Austin v. Michigan Chamber of
22 Commerce, 494 U.S. 652, 660 (1990)). From all that appears, there
23 has been no additional interest identified by the Supreme Court as
24 sufficient to justify such limitations. I thus turn to the
25 evidence concerning corruption and its appearance.

26 ////

1 The High Court has explained that "[c]orruption is a
2 subversion of the political process. Elected officials are
3 influenced to act contrary to their obligations of office by the
4 prospect of financial gain to themselves or infusions of money
5 into their campaigns." NCPAC, 470 U.S. at 497("the hallmark of
6 corruption is the financial quid pro quo: dollars for political
7 favors.")

8 This court observed in the past that "the boundaries of the
9 notion of the appearance of corruption have not been fully
10 developed." SEIU I, 721 F. Supp. at 1179. Unfortunately, little
11 has happened since then to help clarify the notion. Whatever else
12 is true, the appearance of corruption must be more than illusory
13 or conjectural; instead "there must be real substance to the fear
14 of corruption; mere suspicion, that is, 'a tendency to demonstrate
15 distrust . . . is not sufficient,' no matter how widely the
16 suspicion is shared." Id. (quoting NCPAC, 470 U.S. at 499).

17 Above, I noted the conviction of a number of members of the
18 California legislature essentially for bribery in office. In
19 addition, the government's investigation alluded to there resulted
20 in the conviction of a legislatively appointed member of an
21 administrative agency, several members of the staff of the state
22 legislature, and a number of lobbyists. Whether the problem of
23 corruption is viewed as wide-spread and endemic or rare and case-
24 particular, appears beside the point. These violations of law
25 indicate that the problem of corruption in the legislative process
26 is not illusory.

1 While there is evidence of a basis for concern relative to the
2 legislative process, the court notes that there is no record
3 evidence concerning corruption in the conduct of the elected
4 members of the judicial or executive branches of the state
5 government.²⁸ Nonetheless, the voters' adoption of Proposition
6 208 appears to demonstrate suspicion of the political process as
7 a whole, and not simply the legislative branch. Indeed, the
8 persistence of the California electorate in seeking to enact
9 contribution limits appears to demonstrate a wide-spread sense of
10 voting Californians that there is at least an appearance of
11 corruption which must be addressed.²⁹ This judgment, coupled with
12 the huge expenditures requiring large contributions which have
13 become the hallmark of California politics,³⁰ both demonstrate that
14 there is an interest sufficient to justify regulation. Under the

15
16 ²⁸ That is not the same as saying that there might not be a
17 basis for concern. Newspapers have reported events which might be
18 perceived as raising questions about the fund raising conduct of
19 the state's Insurance Commissioner and Attorney General. As
20 noted, however, those events were not addressed in evidence before
21 this court, and thus the court cannot determine whether there is
22 any substance to those reports.

23 ²⁹ The court must acknowledge that it may not be justified in
24 inferring that the voters' adoption of restrictions on the
25 financing of executive and judicial elections reflects their
26 conclusion that contributions to those campaigns are suspect.
Given that the voters adopted term limits and open primaries as
well as Proposition 208, the adoption of the latter may be no more
than a manifestation of the voters' general disaffection from
government, rather than a particular judgment concerning the
financing of executive and judicial branch elections.

³⁰ Among the many findings made by the court concerning the
amount expended in California elections the court noted that: "In
her campaign for Governor, Dianne Feinstein spent \$19 million." See
Finding No. 93.

1 circumstances, the court concludes that there is a legitimate
2 governmental interest served by limitations on campaign
3 contributions.

4 **D. Variable Limits**

5 Once the court concludes that a legitimate governmental
6 interest is served by contribution limits, the court must
7 ordinarily defer to the judgment of the enacting body as to where
8 to set those limits. Buckley, 424 U.S. at 30; and see Federal
9 Election Comm'n v. Nat'l Right to Work Committee, 459 U.S. 197,
10 210 (1982). Plaintiffs nonetheless maintain that the provisions
11 doubling contribution limits for those candidates accepting
12 expenditure limits demonstrate that the lower limits cannot have
13 been viewed by the electorate as addressing either corruption or
14 the appearance of corruption.

15 Given the substantial deference the court is obligated to
16 accord the judgments of the electorate concerning the level of
17 contribution limitations, it is important to understand the
18 underlying premise of the argument. The argument is not that the
19 court should choose between, for instance, \$100 and \$200 as the
20 appropriate level, but that the electorate has manifested its
21 conclusion that a \$200 contribution limitation is not inherently
22 corrupting. Put another way, plaintiffs' contention essentially is
23 that since the electorate permitted a doubled contribution upon
24 agreement to expenditure limitations, it must follow that those
25 limitations are perceived to be sufficient to address the issue of
26 corruption or the appearance of corruption. Given this premise,

1 the argument continues, since the lower limits do not serve the
2 purpose of addressing corruption or the appearance of corruption,
3 and since those are the only legitimate governmental purposes
4 which contribution limits may serve, the lower limits must be
5 stricken. As with so many of the arguments tendered by both sides
6 in this case, this argument is not without persuasive force.
7 Nonetheless, the court cannot accept it.

8 It is true, as plaintiffs maintain, that whatever expenditure
9 limit a candidate agrees to, that agreement is unrelated to the
10 corrupting effect of any particular level of campaign
11 contribution.³¹ It does not follow, however, as plaintiffs
12 contend, that since the corrupting effect of a \$200 contribution
13 is the same whatever the ultimate amount which must be raised may
14 be, the lower expenditure limits applicable to those who do not
15 accept expenditure limits cannot be viewed as addressing either
16 actual corruption or its appearance.

17 Defendants argue that the lower variable contribution
18 limitation is directed towards the evils of corruption and the
19 appearance of corruption. While acknowledging that the potential
20 corruption attendant upon the higher limit is tolerated because
21 permitting such potential corruption also serves other legitimate
22 goals, they nonetheless contend that the variable limit does not
23

24 ³¹ The court has found: "For purposes of determining whether
25 a particular level of contribution creates the appearance or
26 reality of corruption, a candidate who has accepted expenditure
ceilings is no different from any other candidate." See Finding No.
268.

1 demonstrate that the lower limits do not address corruption.
2 I must agree. It is not unreasonable for the people to have
3 concluded that voluntary expenditure limits, by reducing the
4 overall amount the candidate must raise, reduce the number of
5 contributors with a corrupt intent from whom a candidate must seek
6 contributions. Thus, relating the amount one may receive to
7 accepting voluntary expenditure limits may be viewed as serving
8 the recognized purpose of addressing the potential for corruption
9 inherent in any system of private campaign fundraising. In sum,
10 while it may be that voluntary expenditure limits do not alter the
11 potentially corrupting effect of a \$200 contribution, it is not
12 unreasonable to believe that the limits reduce the likelihood that
13 a candidate will accept a corrupting contribution.

14 The conclusion that the lower limits do address corruption,
15 however, does not end the analysis. Rather, contribution limits
16 the level of which vary dependant upon accepting expenditure
17 limits, raise the question of whether Proposition 208's lower
18 campaign limits are closely drawn.

19 While it is true that Buckley did not impose a least
20 restrictive means test for the regulation of campaign
21 contributions, it nonetheless required that the means chosen be
22 closely drawn. A statute is closely drawn when the means chosen
23 do not "burden substantially more speech than is necessary to
24 further the government's legitimate interests." Ward v. Rock
25 Against Racism, 491 U.S. 781, 799 (1989); and see SEIU v. FPFC,
26 955 F.2d 1312, 1322 (9th Cir.), cert. denied, 505 U.S. 1230

1 (1992)(holding that in order for the means adopted to be "closely
2 drawn" a provision must "avoid unnecessary abridgment of
3 associational freedoms").

4 Whatever else may be true of Proposition 208's variable limits
5 scheme, it seems relatively clear that the electorate has
6 manifested its judgment that the higher limitations are not
7 unacceptably corrupting, and suffice so long as they are related
8 to a constitutionally noncognizable value, namely limitations on
9 expenditures.³² It follows that the lower limits are not closely
10 drawn to achieve the only governmental purposes sufficient to
11 justify regulation.³³ Put another way, the adoption of the
12 variable limits reflects a conclusion on the part of the voters
13 that the \$200 limit suffices to address the issue of corruption
14 even if it is not the lowest amount which would do so.³⁴ That

15
16 ³² The variable limits established by proposition 208 must be
17 distinguished from statutes which establish expenditure limits as
18 a condition of public financing. Because public financing is
19 inherently free from corruption, expenditure limits are a necessary
20 concomitant to insure that unlimited expenditures do not
21 reintroduce the potentially corrupting effect of private fund
22 raising.

23 ³³ The ballot measure arguments in support of Proposition 208
24 assured the voters, inter alia, that "Proposition 208 provides a
25 comprehensive solution to corrupting special interest influence in
26 California." Dfts' Exhibit B, Ballot Rebuttal to Argument Against
27 Proposition 208. Whatever limitation exists on judicial review of
28 the voters' understanding of the contents of initiatives, see Bates
29 v. Jones, __ F.3d. __, No. 97-15864 (9th Cir. Dec. 19, 1997), it
30 is, to say the least, incongruous for defendants to contend that
31 the voters in adopting Proposition 208, were agreeing to perpetuate
32 a level of corruption.

33 ³⁴ Indeed, the voters may well have concluded that there is no
34 amount so low that it will not tempt someone. In any event, they

1 conclusion requires a finding that the lower limit is not closely
2 drawn. Because campaign contributions translate into a
3 candidate's speech, and are protected as associational rights,
4 they may not be restricted to a degree unnecessary to achieve the
5 governmental purpose. The determination that under specified but
6 constitutionally noncognizable conditions, \$200 suffices, requires
7 that the lower limits be stricken. I thus conclude that the lower
8 limits are not narrowly drawn to achieve a legitimate governmental
9 purpose, and thus the provisions for those lower campaign
10 limitations are constitutionally infirm.³⁵ As the court now
11 explains, Proposition 208 suffers from yet another constitutional
12 infirmity.

13 **E. Insufficient Assets**

14 The third basis for plaintiffs' attack is that the statute
15 sets contribution limits at such a low level that candidates will
16 not be able to marshal sufficient assets to campaign effectively.

17
18 _____
19 apparently concluded that in effect, a \$200 limit works as well as
20 a \$100 limit. As this court found: "There is no evidence that the
particular contribution limits set by Proposition 208 will have any
effect on either actual corruption or the appearance of
corruption." See Finding No. 75.

21 ³⁵ Plaintiffs also contend that the variable limits
22 unconstitutionally require candidates to surrender a right
23 protected by the First Amendment, their right of unrestricted
24 speech, in return for a governmental benefit, the opportunity to
25 raise funds at a higher level. See, e.g., Perry v. Sinderman, 408
26 U.S. 593, 597 (1972). Given the determination that the lower
limits are not narrowly drawn, the court need not address the
excruciatingly complex doctrine of unconstitutional conditions.
See this court's stab at the problem in a very different context.
Louisiana Pacific Corp. v. Beazer Materials & Services, 842 F.
Supp. 1243 (E.D. Cal. 1994).

1 Plaintiffs argue that, especially when viewed in light of the
2 expenditure limits, which they contend most candidates will feel
3 compelled to accept, the effect of Proposition 208 is to restrain
4 political speech in violation of the First Amendment.³⁶

5 Plaintiffs have tendered a wealth of factual and opinion
6 evidence in support of their position. The court has found
7 myriad facts which, taken together, require the court to
8 conclude that on the record made at trial the effect of the
9 initiative is not only to significantly reduce a California
10 candidate's ability to deliver his or her message, but in fact to
11 make it impossible for the ordinary candidate to mount an
12 effective campaign for office.³⁷

13 ////

15 ³⁶ Concerning the voluntary or coercive nature of the
16 expenditure limits the court found, inter alia, "Two candidates on
17 an even footing with respect to other matters, including
18 fundraising ability, will ordinarily accept the limits, because,
19 in the context of California politics, failure to do so will mean
20 that the other candidate will be able to spend effectively (at
21 double or triple the "voluntary" limit), raise at twice the rate
22 from individuals and political action committees, receive unlimited
23 party funds and preferential ballot treatment. Accordingly, the
24 expenditure limitations are coercive for similarly situated
25 candidates, and as to those candidates, the court finds that as a
26 matter of law they will operate as mandatory expenditure limits,"
see Finding. No. 292, and "[O]n the whole, and for most candidates,
in most elections for state office, the provisions relating to
campaign limits are coercive, in the sense that candidates will
make a rational judgment that they cannot prevail in the election
if they do not accept the expenditure limits." See Finding No. 293.

³⁷ The problem is compounded by the fact that one effect of
Proposition 208 is to divert campaign contributions from the
candidate to independent expenditures, thus providing a source of
campaign rhetoric which may drown out or at least dilute the
candidate's own message.

1 Although defendants tendered some opinion evidence that the
2 contribution levels were sufficient to permit an adequate
3 campaign, on the whole they did not present evidence directly
4 contradicting plaintiffs' factual contentions. Defendants note,
5 however, that the limits in Proposition 208 are comparable to
6 those at stake in Buckley and thus suggest that plaintiffs are
7 precluded from successfully arguing that the levels are
8 insufficient to sustain a meaningful campaign. Along the same
9 line, defendants note that a large number of states have campaign
10 limits, some considerably lower than those in Proposition 208, and
11 that the city of San Diego has campaign limits comparable to those
12 found in the initiative. They then argue that these facts
13 evidence that the limits are adequate. Second, while
14 acknowledging that Proposition 208 would require changes in the
15 way campaigns are conducted in this state, defendants maintain
16 that nothing mandates the historic mode of campaigning. They
17 contend in effect that plaintiffs' evidence demonstrates a
18 difference in amount and not in kind and thus are an insufficient
19 predicate for unconstitutionality under Buckley. Finally, they
20 argue that since the plaintiffs attack the statute on its face,
21 the question of the ability of candidates to mount meaningful
22 campaigns is, of necessity, a predictive judgment, and that the
23 court must accord substantial deference to the predictive
24 judgments underlying the adoption of the initiative.

25 ////

26 ////

1 Defendants' arguments are, to say the least, not without
2 substance. Nonetheless, for the reasons explained below, the
3 court concludes that they cannot prevail against plaintiffs'
4 evidence.

5 Defendants first reason that the limits approved in Buckley
6 and the existence of campaign limits enacted by various local
7 jurisdictions within California and in other states defeat
8 plaintiffs' claim. While the court agrees that defendants'
9 contention bears on the question of sufficiency of the limits,
10 this argument is not dispositive.

11 I begin by noting that in Buckley's record "[t]here is no
12 indication, however, that the contribution limitations imposed by
13 the Act would have any dramatic adverse effect on the funding of
14 campaigns and political associations." Buckley, 424 U.S. at 21.
15 This contrasts with the instant record where the court has
16 concluded that the contribution limits will prevent the marshaling
17 of assets sufficient to conduct a meaningful campaign.³⁸ Nor is
18 that conclusion undermined by the existence of campaign limits in
19 other jurisdictions. The facts pertinent to each jurisdiction,
20 such as the size of the district, the cost of media, printing,
21 staff support, news media coverage, and the divergent provisions
22 of the various statutes and ordinances undermines the value of
23

24 ³⁸ In reality most candidates are put to a Hobson's choice.
25 While on the one hand the contribution limits make it likely that
26 the candidate will be unable to raise sufficient funds to mount a
meaningful campaign, the expenditure limits also make it unlikely
that a meaningful campaign can be conducted.

1 crude comparisons. Judge Hogan observed that his conclusion that
2 the provisions considered in his case prevented candidates from
3 effective advocacy "is fact-dependent, drawn from all of the
4 record evidence and an evaluation of the witnesses' credibility.
5 Similar caps in another jurisdiction may not have the same severe
6 impact upon First Amendment rights . . . , because the District of
7 Columbia is *sui generis*." National Black Police Assn v. District
8 of Columbia Bd. of Elections and Ethics, 924 F. Supp. 270, 281
9 (D.D.C. 1996), vacated as moot 108 F.3d 346 (1997). My conclusion
10 is similarly fact-based, and I only amend the observation to
11 suggest that every jurisdiction is *sui generis*, and thus every
12 campaign contribution limitation must be judged on its own
13 circumstances.³⁹

14 Like their first argument, defendants' contention that there
15 is nothing sacrosanct about the historic methods of campaigning
16 and that all Proposition 208 does is require alteration in the
17 method of campaigning, cannot be dismissed out of hand.
18 Nonetheless, the court cannot agree that the initiative simply
19 commands a change in degree and not in kind. Certain conditions,
20 such as the fact that the size of the legislative districts in
21

22 ³⁹ Nor is it clear that the existence of limits is a
23 demonstration of their efficacy. The court found concerning San
24 Diego's limits, inter alia, that: "Under the \$250 contribution
25 limits in San Diego, the new forms of fundraising that have emerged
26 are self-financing by the candidate, coordinated giving by business
employees and illegal money laundering" See Finding No. 117.
Moreover, the court found that: "The experience of the FPCC has
been that jurisdictions with contribution limits experience an
increase in illegal money laundering." See Finding No. 118.

1 California precludes so-called retail politics, the cost of
2 advertising in this state, the general lack of media coverage of
3 legislative campaigns, the cost of overhead, all limit efforts
4 to reduce cost.⁴⁰ Moreover, given that the limits will require the
5 candidate to spend yet more time raising money since it must be
6 raised from a greater number of donors, it is doubtful that there
7 is anything the candidate could do to alter campaigns in
8 meaningful ways.⁴¹ This conclusion brings the court to the last of
9 defendants' arguments, which is that given the "on its face"
10 character of this suit, and thus the absence of firm experience,
11 the court must give deference to the predictive judgment of the
12 electorate necessarily to be implied from its adoption of
13 Proposition 208.

14 ////

15 ////

16

17 ⁴⁰ There may be a suggestion by intervenors that one effect of
18 Proposition 208 is that it will have the happy result of reducing
19 reliance on expensive professional campaign consultants. Without
20 judging the desirability of such a consequence, it seems unlikely
21 to have such an effect, at least in competitive races. The ubiquity
22 of campaign consultants suggests that those whose futures are at
23 stake value the contributions of consultants considerably more than
the drafters of the initiative. Moreover, the expertise necessary
for the design, targeting and timing of mailings, the creation,
placement and timing of media campaigns, and other skills developed
by campaign specialists are unlikely to be possessed by the average
candidate.

24 ⁴¹ The sanguine evaluation of the drafters that the candidates
25 will find a way if required to not withstanding. Aside from time,
26 raising money, whether by way of mail solicitation or fund raisers,
itself costs money. Even volunteer precinct walkers cost money,
both to supply them with campaign material, to organize them, and
to poll to decide where to expend the effort.

1 Relying on a recent case, defendants assert that "Supreme
2 Court precedent firmly establishes that 'courts must accord
3 substantial deference to the predictive judgments' embodied in a
4 statute." Intervenor Trial Brief at 24 (citing and quoting
5 Turner Broadcasting System, Inc. v. Democratic National Committee,
6 512 U.S. 622, 665 (1994)). Intervenor's formulation, however,
7 ignores the context of the quotation which requires federal courts
8 to "accord substantial deference to the predictive judgments of
9 Congress." Id. Thus, the deference recognized in Turner is the
10 consequence, at least in part, of the constitutional delegation of
11 legislative power to a coordinate branch of government, a factor
12 not present in the instant case. Of course, this is not to say
13 that the predictive judgments of state legislatures are not
14 entitled to due weight. See, e.g., Minnesota v. Clover Leaf
15 Creamery Co., 449 U.S. 456, 460 (1981). It would seem odd,
16 however, that this court would be required to give greater
17 deference to the implied predictive judgments of a state's
18 legislation than the state's own courts would. In this regard,
19 California courts accord deference to the predictive judgments of
20 their legislature on a sliding scale, according significant
21 deference to economic judgments, American Bank & Trust Co. v.
22 Community Hospital, 36 Cal.3d 359, 372 (1984), but employing
23 "greater judicial scrutiny" "[w]hen an enactment intrudes upon a
24 constitutional right." American Academy of Pediatrics v. Lungren,
25 16 Cal.4th 307, 349 (1997).

26 ////

1 It is of course true that deference in the federal courts is
2 not simply a function of the separation of powers doctrine. It
3 also rests upon the legislative branch being "better equipped than
4 the judiciary to 'amass and evaluate the vast amounts of data'
5 bearing upon . . . complex and dynamic" issues. Turner, 512 U.S.
6 at 665-66. Once again, given that the statutes at bar are the
7 product of the initiative process, their adoption did not enjoy
8 the fact gathering and evaluation process which in part justifies
9 deference.⁴²

10 In any event, the deference federal courts accord legislative
11 predictive judgments "does not mean . . . that they are insulated
12 from meaningful judicial review altogether. On the contrary, we
13 have stressed in First Amendment cases that the deference afforded
14 to legislative findings does 'not foreclose our independent
15 judgment of the facts bearing on an issue of constitutional law.'" Id.
16 at 666 (quoting Sable Communications of Cal., Inc. v. FCC, 492
17 U.S. 115, 129 (1989)). Thus, courts are obligated to "assure
18 that, in formulating its judgments, Congress has drawn reasonable
19 inferences, based on substantial evidence." Id.

20 Given the obligation to assure that the implied findings were
21 based on substantial evidence, the matter went to trial. At the
22 conclusion of that trial, the court made factual findings as to
23 the ability of candidates to marshal sufficient assets to
24 effectively communicate under the exigencies of campaigning in

25 ⁴² The court has found: "No systematic study was done in
26 conjunction with Proposition 208." See Finding No. 123.

1 California. Because the court has concluded that the evidence
2 commands a conclusion inconsistent with the implicit legislative
3 finding, that implied finding cannot stand even after according it
4 due deference.

5 For all the above reasons, the court concludes that the
6 contributions limits must fail because they are set at a level
7 precluding an opportunity to conduct a meaningful campaign.

8 IV.

9 SEVERANCE, REFORMATION AND INJUNCTIVE RELIEF

10 Having concluded that the anchor provisions of Proposition 208
11 are unconstitutional, a determination must be made as to whether
12 those provisions are severable, since if they are not the entire
13 proposition must fail. As I explain below, there are also
14 significant questions of reformation and the relief appropriate
15 under the circumstances. I turn first to the question of
16 severance.

17 A. Severance

18 A federal court is empowered to determine whether an
19 unconstitutional provision of a state statute can be severed.
20 Brockett v. Spokane Arcades, Inc., 472 U.S. 491, 506 (1985). In
21 doing so, federal courts apply state law. Id. Under California
22 law, there are "three criteria for severability: the invalid
23 provision must be grammatically, functionally, and volitionally
24 separable." Gerken v. FPCC, 6 Cal.4th 707, 721-22 (1993).

25 Some of the provisions of Proposition 208, such as the
26 limitation on contributions to and from political parties,

1 Sections 85303 and 85304, to and from PACS, Sections 85301 and
2 85309, the aggregate limitations, Section 85310, and the transfer
3 ban, Section 85306, appear to be justified solely on the basis
4 that they are required to prevent subversion of the campaign
5 limitation provisions. See California Medical Ass'n v. FEC, 453
6 U.S. 182, 198 (1981). As to such provisions, I have previously
7 explained that they cannot stand if the justifying provision is
8 itself unconstitutional. See SEIU, 747 F. Supp. at 593. On the
9 other hand, various provisions of Proposition 208 such as the
10 spend down provision, Section 89519, the prohibition on the use of
11 campaign funds for office expenditures, Section 85313, the
12 provisions concerning disclosure in advertising, Sections 84501
13 through 84510, and the provisions concerning slate mailers,
14 Section 84305.5, appear to have separate justifications and
15 conceivably are constitutional if the limitation provisions are
16 severable. Whether this initial impression is correct will
17 require extended analysis.

18 Below the court will explain that it believes it appropriate
19 to provide the California Supreme Court with an opportunity to
20 decide if it wishes to determine at this time whether the
21 provisions of Proposition 208 found unconstitutional are subject
22 to reformation. Given that conclusion, and given the fact that
23 California law controls severance, it appears appropriate to
24 provide that Court with an opportunity to determine whether it
25 wishes to determine at this time whether the provisions found
26 unconstitutional here can and should be severed, and if so the

1 extent of severance.

2 **B. Reformation**

3 The California Supreme Court has recently examined its power
4 to reform an otherwise unconstitutional statute. Kopp v. FPCC, 11
5 Cal.4th 607 (1995). That Court rejected "the view that a court
6 lacks authority to rewrite a statute in order to preserve its
7 constitutionality or that the separation of powers doctrine, which
8 vests legislative power in the legislature and judicial power in
9 the courts (California Const., art. IV, § 1; id., art. VI, § 1),
10 invariably precludes such judicial rewriting." Id. at 615.

11 Instead, the California Supreme Court held that it would apply
12 a two part test:

13 "[A] court may reform--i.e., 'rewrite'-- a statute
14 in order to preserve it against invalidation under
15 the Constitution, when we can say with confidence that
16 (i) it is possible to reform the statute in a manner
17 that closely effectuates policy judgment clearly
18 articulated by the enacting body, and (ii) the enacting
19 body would have preferred the reformed construction
20 to invalidation of the statute."

21 Kopp, 11 Cal.4th at 660-61.

22 A federal court, on the other hand, which derives its power
23 from the federal Constitution and is bound by principles of
24 federalism, has no power by virtue of California's separation of
25 powers doctrine, or otherwise, to rewrite a state statute, even to
26 save it from unconstitutionality. As the Ninth Circuit bluntly
put it, it is "not within the province of [a federal] court to
'rewrite' [a state law] to cure its substantial constitutional
infirmities." Tucker v. State of Calif. Dept. of Education, 9

1 7 F.3d 1204, 1217 (9th Cir. 1996). Rather, federal courts "must
2 take the state statute or municipal ordinance as written and
3 cannot find the statute or ordinance constitutional on the basis
4 of a limiting construction supplied by it rather than a state
5 court." Eubanks v. Wilkinson, 937 F.2d 1118, 1126 (6th Cir. 1991).
6 In sum, "a federal court may not supply new limiting language for
7 a state statute to create constitutionality." Id. at 1120; see
8 also Hill v. City of Houston, 789 F.2d 1103, 1112 (5th Cir.)(
9 "a federal court may not itself provide a limiting construction of
10 legislation that is not so readily susceptible"), aff'd 482 U.S.
11 451 (1987). Thus, although it is clear that where, consistent
12 with the language employed, a federal court may construe a statute
13 to save it from unconstitutionality, it "will not rewrite a state
14 law to conform it to constitutional requirements." Virginia v.
15 American Booksellers Assn. Inc., 484 U.S. 383, 397 (1988); see
16 also Erznoznik v. City of Jacksonville, 422 U.S. 205, 216
17 (1975)(narrowing construction only permitted if the language is
18 "easily susceptible of a narrowing construction").

19 The difference between the power of this court and the
20 California Supreme Court relative to reformation of state statutes
21 supports an order providing the state court with an opportunity to
22 reform the statute before this court issues a final judgment as to
23 its constitutionality. Accordingly, the court will direct the
24 defendants in this action to seek an original writ in the
25 California Supreme Court inquiring as to whether reformation of
26 Proposition 208 is proper, and if so the nature of that

1 reformation. See Kopp, 11 Cal.4th at 660-61. Given this
2 determination, the court will also direct plaintiffs to seek that
3 Court's views as to severance.⁴³ These orders attempt to balance,
4 on the one hand, this court's obligation to resolve
5 federal questions and, on the other, the state court's authority
6 as the final word on the meaning of state statutes.

7 Given this view, the court must now consider what should be
8 done pending the California Supreme Court's decision as to whether
9 it wishes to consider severance and reformation, and, if so,
10 pending its determination of those issues.

11 **C. Injunctive Relief**

12 I have previously noted that although the existence of a
13 constitutional violation does not automatically answer the
14 question of whether an injunction should issue, "only the
15 strangest of circumstances would suggest that a violation of the
16 Constitution would not be subject to equitable relief." SEIU, 721
17 F. Supp. at 1179. The burden on protected political expression
18 that the court has found above is plainly an irreparable injury.
19 See, e.g., Lydo Enterprises, Inc. v. City of Las Vegas, 745 F.2d
20 1211, 1213 (9th Cir. 1984)("any loss of First Amendment rights,
21 even briefly, can constitute irreparable injury"). Moreover, no
22 adequate legal redress is available for such a violation. Under
23

24 ⁴³ Of course the granting of such a writ is wholly
25 discretionary with the California Supreme Court. Whether or not
26 that Court issues a writ, the parties are directed to return to
this court for such proceedings as are appropriate following the
California Court's decision.

1 these circumstances, issuance of a permanent injunction would be
2 warranted. Because of the outstanding issues of severance and
3 reformation, however, it appears to the court that a preliminary
4 injunction should issue instead.⁴⁴

5
6 **V.**

7 **CONCLUSION**

8 There has been a suggestion by some members of Congress that
9 in resolving questions of constitutional law district judges are
10 relying on their view of the social good rather than the law. In
11 my experience, that concern is unfounded. For myself, this court
12 cannot emphasize the hesitancy it experienced in coming to the
13 conclusion that a substantial portion of Proposition 208 fails the
14 test of constitutionality. More to the point, perhaps, my

15 ⁴⁴ A recent law review article has argued that it is
16 "undesirable for a federal court to address the merits of the case
17 to determine whether to grant interim relief." Hardy, Federal
18 Courts--Certification before Facial Invalidiation: A Return to
19 Federalism, 12 W. New. Eng. L. Rev. 217, 241 (1990). The article
20 suggests that "the state court may take the preliminary
21 determination as an indication of how the federal court will
22 ultimately rule on the merits and may view the injunction as an
23 attempt to force the state court into interpreting the state law
24 in accordance with the federal court's preliminary interpretation."
25 Id. I cannot agree. First, the argument undervalues the need for
26 prompt relief where unconstitutional restrictions on First
Amendment rights are concerned. This is particularly so where the
issue is whether officers elected to govern a state and make its
laws, all of whose acts will not be undone by a later determination
of unconstitutionality, will be elected consistent with the
fundamental law. Second, it underestimates the sturdiness of state
courts in general, and the California Supreme Court in particular.
If that court does not believe it appropriate to address the
questions of severance and reformation for any reason, including
its desire to await final action by this court or review of this
court's decision by the Ninth Circuit or the Supreme Court, it is
perfectly free to do so.

1 conclusion as a judge does not necessarily accord with my view as
2 a citizen.

3 In note 6 supra, this court quoted from the First Amendment,
4 and observed how the plain words of the text inhibit any attempt
5 by government to circumscribe the right of its citizens to full
6 participation in the political process. As I have observed
7 elsewhere, however, our Constitution is not only an "embodiment of
8 our most precious values," it is also "a great document of
9 practical governance." Potter v. Rain Brook Feed Co., Inc., 530 F.
10 Supp. 569, 580 (E.D. Cal. 1982). In that regard, it is not
11 inappropriate to ask whether the people do not have a right to
12 restrain those who would buy elections or the elected. In
13 answering that question I think it appropriate to remember Justice
14 Jackson's profound dictum that if the Supreme Court does not
15 temper "doctrinaire logic with a little practical wisdom, it will
16 convert the constitutional Bill of Rights into a suicide pact."
17 Terminiello v. City of Chicago, 337 U.S. 1, 37 (1949)(Jackson J.,
18 *dissenting*). Nonetheless, it is clear to this court that this
19 particular effort at reform has failed.

20 **VI.**

21 **ORDER**

22 For all the above reasons, the court now ORDERS as follows:

23 1. The FPPC is ENJOINED from enforcing any of the provisions
24 of Proposition 208 pending further order of the court;

25 2. Plaintiffs shall post a \$100.00 bond;

26 ////

3. The FPPC shall seek an original writ in the California Supreme Court, naming the parties here, which shall seek a determination as to whether the provisions of Proposition 208 are severable, and if severable how, and whether the statute is subject to reformation, and if so in what manner; and

4. The parties are directed to provide the court with a status report of the state court proceedings in the above-captioned case every sixty (60) days and further directed to notify this court within ten (10) days after the California Supreme Court issues a final decision.

IT IS SO ORDERED.

DATED: January 6, 1998.

LAWRENCE K. KARLTON
CHIEF JUDGE EMERITUS
UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT